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ABSTRACT

This report presents a two-part discussion of models of mentoring in higher education. The first part provides an overview of the career and psychosocial roles of the mentor most often cited in the literature. The second part examines several studies of graduate mentoring in higher education, specifically those of J. Holland (1995); Kathleen T. Heinrich (1995); and M. R. Schockett, E. C. Yosimura, K. Beyard-Tyler & M. J. Haring (1983). Special attention is given to the complexity of mentor roles as well as to the idiosyncratic nature of mentoring relationships. Holland concluded that the quasi-apprenticeship, academic mentoring, and career mentoring relationships of African American doctoral students had the most significant impact on the participants in his study, underscoring the importance of these kinds of mentoring relationships to advancement in higher education. Heinrich's study of women mentors concluded that if mentoring is envisioned as individuals involved in relationships with one another for the purpose of achieving a goal involving reciprocity, empowerment, and solidarity, then further study is needed to determine how women advisors own and use their legitimate power, share power, and negotiate differences to nurture the professional growth of advisees. While Haring's network mentoring model shares many of the Holland and Heinrich studies' characteristics, findings suggest that the mentoring relationship in academics can positively affect the graduate student's predoctoral activity and initial job placement. These findings underscore the need to examine in even greater detail questions on mentoring that focus on the roles, selection, and effectiveness of these mentoring relationships. (Contains 30 references.) (NAV)

AN EXAMINATION OF EFFECTIVE MENTORING MODELS IN THE ACADEMY

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Despite more than two decades of research and writing, mentoring remains an ill-defined, elusive concept of a relationship that occurs in a variety of settings, between pairs of dissimilar individuals for diverse reasons.

Nevertheless, research has shown that individuals can and do benefit from having supportive working relationships (Gabaro, 1987; Thomas and Kram, 1987; Kram, 1985 as cited in Thomas, 1990), and such relationships between senior and junior colleagues can serve to enhance the career development of the junior person (Levinson & McKee, 1978; Roche, 1977; Kram, 1985). These relationships have frequently been referred to as mentor-protégé relationships, sponsor-protégé relationships, and perhaps most accurately, developmental relationships (Clawson, 1980; Kram, 1985).

The literary precursors of the contemporary usage of "mentor" as a noun meaning wise and faithful teacher and counselor are found in Greek legend. Mentor was the friend and teacher to whom Odysseus entrusted his son while he embarked on his legendary journeys.

Protégé is derived from the past participle of the French verb "proteger", to protect. A protégé is "a person guided and helped, especially in the furtherance of a career by another, more influential person" (Auster, 1984, p. 142).

However, literary definitions notwithstanding, the nature of mentoring relationships particularly in higher education remains elusive. It is that elusive quality which began the five year, cross-disciplinary conversation which we continue in this symposium. During that time, presentations have ranged from descriptions of mentoring relationships in community college settings, to issues related to cross-race and

cross/cultural mentoring, to mentoring for career advancement across organizational contexts to last year's discussion of what Reginald Wilson termed "negative mentoring." In each case, participants have sought to present their own research on mentoring in the context of an on-going dialogue. This dialogue, in turn, has raised the questions and issues which continue to inform our investigations of the nature and complexities which characterize both the term and the relationships. What has become clear in these symposia is that while mentoring relationships may share some commonalties, they also retain differences which underscore these complexities.

For some time, universities have viewed mentoring as critical to professional development and mobility. Within the academy, such mentorship most often occurs in the informal but, special sponsorship that a graduate student receives from a senior professor. In this context, the mentor becomes a role model, providing academic advice and eventually assistance in gaining access to the profession (Blackburn, Chapman & Cameron, 1981, p. 315).

In reporting the findings of several studies focusing on mentoring in higher education, Tillman (1995) suggests that the relationships could be psychologically supportive as well as professionally beneficial to the protégé (Hall and Sandler, 1983; McNeer, 1983; Wright and Wright, 1987; Sands, et al, 1991; Claque, 1992). Hill, Bahnuik, and Dobos (1989) describe mentoring as a communication relationship in which a senior person supports, tutors, guides, and facilitates a junior person's career development, and that such relationships are important in the academic world at various levels.

Despite these conclusions regarding the benefits of mentoring, the literature contains no uniform agreement about (a) the roles of a mentor; (b) what differentiates a mentor from a sponsor; (c) how mentors select protégés and how protégés are drawn to certain mentors (d) the effectiveness of formal mentoring programs and (e) whether mentoring occurs differently and with different results for women and persons of color. Thus, while research identifies the nature and dynamics of established mentoring relationships, how they occur in organizations at a variety of levels, as well as the roles a mentor might assume, there is less clarity about other important issues. This lack of consensus about the definition of mentoring and the roles of the mentor has impeded the deve'opment of a clear conceptual framework within which to conduct further research. Nor is there sufficient evidence to confirm that the research and literature on mentoring are discussing the same phenomenon. This is particularly troublesome in examinations of mentoring between faculty and graduate students. The proliferation of these examinations (nearly 750 studies) illustrates the intense interest in mentoring relationships even as it highlights the lack of uniformity discussed earlier.

This paper presents a discussion of models of mentoring in higher education. Part I provides an overview of the career and psychosocial roles of the mentor most often cited in the literature. Part II treats studies of graduate mentoring in higher education by Holland (1995), Heinrich (1995) and Schockett, Yosimura, Beyard-Tyler & Haring (1983).

ROLES OF THE MENTOR

Several researchers have identified the roles of mentors. Perhaps the best known of these are Kram (1980, 1985), Missirian (1980), and Phillips (1977), who have all described the roles a mentor might assume. These studies are considered seminal and form the basis of the work of Holland (1995), Heinrich (1995) and Haring et al (1983) discussed later.

Kram described a mentor in terms of two functions, **career** (where the mentor sponsored, coached the individual, as well as gave exposure, visibility, and protection) and **psychosocial** (where the mentor serves as a role model, counselor, and friend)

Tillman (1995) found these same roles replicated in her study of faculty to faculty mentoring relationships. In these relationships, career functions prepare the protégé for career advancement and include protection (protection from assignment to committees that are particularly time consuming and which can detract from research and teaching agendas required for tenure); providing direction in formulating research questions, the important questions to ask, as well as frank but confidential feedback in addition to suggesting strategies for accomplishing specific academic tasks); and sponsorship (nominating the protégé for desirable projects, positions, and promotion, assuring that needed resources and career enhancing opportunities are available and assigning projects that increase the protégé's exposure and visibility to influential colleagues with similar research interests).

Psychosocial functions enhance the protégé's sense of competence, identity, and work-role effectiveness. These functions include role-modeling (serving as an appropriate

role model for attitudes, values and behaviors); acceptance and confirmation (conveying unconditional positive regard for the protégé and his/her work); counseling (encouraging the protégé to talk openly about anxieties and concerns and giving the protégé support that facilitates socialization and helps in coping with the stress and work demands of the new faculty role). Thus, according to Tillman, the faculty mentor can perform a variety of Kram's functions, ranging from socialization to emotional support (Tillman, 1995, pp 3 & 4).

Missirian (1980) identified similar roles for the mentor suggesting that he or she could be a sponsor, coach, and even a peer depending on the context and the protégé's needs. Phillips (1977) reported the roles of mentors to be supportive bosses/partners, sponsors, invisible godparents, peer strategizers, role models, patrons and favor-doers.

Despite the similarities in the roles identified by these researchers, the literature does not clearly define a single set of mentor roles. In fact, Fields (1988) analyzed 23 selected research studies and found that not a single role was identified which was accepted by all the researchers.

This ambiguity was also reflected in the research of Mertz, Welch & Henderson (1990) in their study of career advancement mentoring in business, industry and higher education. In describing their roles, the mentors most frequently identified themselves as guides, exemplars, patrons, or sponsors. They also raised the following questions related to their decision to mentor:

a. Can I operate under the protégé's intense scrutiny of my behavior, ideas, style and judgment:

Intense scrutiny is uncomfortable

Am I willing/able to be explicit about everything I do and say?

b. If I teach the protégé all I know, will I lose some of my power?

c. Will I be judged by the behavior of the protégé? Will we be linked to one another in the minds of others?

d. What kinds of experiences should I provide to help the protégé grow as well as to test his/her potential?

These questions demonstrate the complexity of mentor roles as well as the idiosyncratic nature of mentoring relationships, an idiosyncrasy which may be heightened in the graduate mentoring relationships described in Holland's (1995) study and the doctoral advisement relationships between women described in Heinrich's (1995) study.

MENTORING IN HIGHER EDUCATION

In his paper, "Paths to the Academy: The Faculty Development of African American Doctoral Students", Holland (1995) describes his study which examined the characteristics of African American doctoral student-faculty advisor relationships. Participants included students who had completed one year of doctoral study and those who had finished their doctoral work from two large research institutions in the midwest. The study included forty-two participants, twenty-three of whom were still enrolled in doctoral programs and nineteen who had completed their degrees. Of those currently enrolled in programs, four represented the hard sciences (physical science, engineering, and the life sciences), seven were from the humanities and social sciences, and twelve

represented the field of education. Of the nineteen students who had completed doctoral programs, three represented the hard sciences, eight were from the social sciences and humanities, and eight were from the field of education.

Using a grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), Holland (1995) combined systematic data collection, coding and analysis with theoretical sampling (Conrad, 1982, p. 241) in order to generate an integrated theory closely related to the data about categories of advisor /student mentoring relationships. He conducted in-depth interviews with each of the participants which lasted from 30 minutes to two and one-half hours and identified five types of relationships that African American doctoral students have with their major advisors. These are summarized below:

Findings:

1. **Formal academic advisement relationships** characterized by little interaction between the advisor and the student and a focus on guidance considered necessary for the student to advance through his/her program of study. Such relationships are non-developmental in nature since the advisor does not nurture or groom the doctoral student.
2. **Academic Guidance Relationships**, the most frequently experienced relationship by the participants (18) in the study, consisted of flexible and collegial contact between the student and advisor, supportive and understanding advisors who were concerned about the student's needs, and advisors who provided academically related guidance and advice to the doctoral student. There was little or no personal or social contact between the student and the advisor.

3. **Quasi-Apprenticeship Relationships** in which the advisor provided the student with academic opportunities not available to most doctoral students, invited the student to work on projects that advanced the advisor's research agenda, and guided the student with respect to the student's educational needs and completion of the research project. In this respect, the relationship is developmental since the student receives the opportunity to be involved in an activity that is widely practiced in research universities.

4. **Academic Mentoring Relationships** are developmental relationships because the major advisor provides the student with individualized guidance and assistance aimed at preparing the student for academic life in higher education. These relationships are characterized by a broader range of opportunities for the student than those provided in the quasi-apprenticeship relationship. These developmental activities include those that are separate from the typical in-class assignments or projects such as teaching or research assistantships.

Further, the advisor becomes a developmental role model, who discusses or displays for the student the political realities of departmental and university governance in addition to information about the expectations of faculty members at a large research university. Although not close friends, advisors in such relationships take a personal interest in the student and work closely with the student to enhance the student's academic preparation.

5. **Career Mentoring Relationships** were the most extensive that Holland identified. In these developmental relationships, the advisor takes a direct and purposeful role in preparing the student for faculty employment in higher education. Further, the advisor is

active in providing the networks and socialization needed for the student to enter the profession. Finally, the major advisor takes a personal interest in the student and in his/her career success.

Implications:

In describing the implications of his study, Holland suggests that the African American doctoral students interviewed engaged in a variety of relationships with their major advisors and that these relationships played a significant role in the academic life, satisfaction and career preparation of the students. Not surprisingly, Holland concluded that the quasi-apprenticeship, academic mentoring and career mentoring relationships had the most significant impact on the participants in his study. This finding underscores the importance of these kinds of mentoring relationships to advancement in higher education. In his study of university administrators, Kouba (1984) found that 52 percent of college and university presidents surveyed indicated that they had had mentors while Fenske (1986) found that over half of the female chief academic officers of colleges of nursing and deans of colleges of education were mentored. In both studies, participants reported mentoring experiences similar to the quasi-apprenticeship and career mentoring relationships described by Holland.

DOCTORAL ADVISEMENT BETWEEN WOMEN

A major element of the classic mentor-protégé relationship (Levinson et al, 1978) involves the high degree of identification between the parties. Individuals tend to identify with persons who are like themselves on salient identity group characteristics (Miller &

Dreger, 1968). Since mentor-protégé relationships frequently require a high degree of sharing, the issue of identification becomes particularly significant. Kram (1985) found this issue of identification in her examinations of cross-gender mentoring in that female protégés often reported difficulty with seeing their male mentors as role models, an important psychosocial function of mentoring relationships (Thomas, 1990, p. 482).

In her phenomenological study of doctoral advisement, Kathleen Heinrich (1995) explored twenty-two women's relationships with dissertation committee advisors. She was interested in how much these relationships resembled earlier relationships with parental figures. The study is important because gender and power continue to be inextricably linked in higher education (Heinrich, p. 448). Thus, women doctoral students are more likely to choose male professors with ranks and salaries, more power, influence and professional connections than female professors as dissertation committee members and chairs.

Participants:

Heinrich's study involved participants who were women between thirty-five and forty-five, European American, married with children, and who lived in suburban, middle-class neighborhoods. These women were employed full time during doctoral study and graduated in 1985-1986. Consistent with doctoral programs in education nationally, the "typical participant" in the study had a dissertation committee composed of male advisors who were between the ages of forty-five and fifty-five and full professors. The women advisors were typically between the ages of thirty-five and forty-five and at the assistant or

associate professorial rank. At the time the study was conducted, few women advisors were available to choose from.

Findings:

Two findings emerged from the participants with women advisors in the study: (1) a yearning for advisors to assume mentoring roles; and (2) deep disappointment when advisors were not mentoring. The central themes in the study related to power as advisees described the task and interpersonal dimensions of their advisement relationships. Two types of power were described by the advisees: **personal power** (which they termed the power accorded to any person by virtue of being human) and **legitimate power** (that vested in the individual by the institution in the form of professional rank and status within the university).

Whether advisors or advisees owned or disowned personal or legitimate power was related to how power was handled in advisory relationships which, in turn, determined the roles advisors and advisees assumed" (Heinrich, p. 450). The way power, task and interpersonal relationships and interpersonal dimensions balanced as well as how conflict was resolved resulted in the following typology of three reciprocal, advisor/advisee roles (1) "power with" relationships between professional friend advisors and colleague advisees, (2) "power over" relationships between iron maiden advisors and handmaiden advisees, and (3) "power disowned" relationships between negative mother advisors and good daughter advisees or between inadequate advisors and overadequate advisees.

TABLE 1

Power Balance, Typology of Advisor-Advisee Roles, Balance of Task and Interpersonal Dimensions, and Style of Conflict Resolution of Advisory Relationship

Power	Mentoring vs. Non-Mentoring	Advisory Team Typology	Task Interpersonal Balance	Style of Conflict Resolution
With	Mentoring	Professional Friend; Colleague	Balanced	Negotiation
Over	Nonmentoring	Iron Maiden Handmaiden	Task Oriented	Direct Confrontation
Disowned	Nonmentoring	Negative Mother Good Daughter	Interpersonal	Avoidance
		Inadequate Overadequate	Interpersonal	Avoidance

Heinrich, 1995, p. 451.

Implications:

For Heinrich, the most salient implication of the study was collegial sharing of power with advisees which distinguished those advisors who were perceived to be engaged in mentoring. "The warm, professional friendships that these advisees described suggested that these teams dealt effectively with both power and conflict" (Heinrich, p. 450).

Conversely, in those relationships where women told stories of "silent betrayal" in which ineffectual women advisors stood by as advisees floundered and sometimes failed through lack of assistance with the byzantine bureaucracy of the university or were victimized by associate male and female advisors. These advisors betrayed advisees with their silence, while advisees simultaneously betrayed themselves by remaining silent about

their needs as well as their feelings of frustration, disappointment, or anger with female advisors (Heinrich, p. 450).

Heinrich further found that seventeen of the women in the study were able to identify similarities between parental and advisement relationships. "Participants' responses fell into two groups, those with (1) supportive relationships with female or male advisors who reminded them of supportive parenting figures, or (2) conflictual relationships with mothers" (Heinrich, p. 456). She concludes that if mentoring is envisioned as individuals involved in relationships with one another for the purpose of achieveing a goal involving reciprocity, empowerment and solidarity, then further study of mentoring relationships between women must be undertaken to learn more about how women advisors own and use their legitimate power, share power, and negotiate differences to nurture the professional growth of advisees. Additional studies of "silent betrayal" in mentoring relationships must also be conducted.

NETWORK MENTORING

Incorporating elements of Kram's Psychosocial Phases of Mentoring, Haring's et al (1983) Network Mentoring Model focuses on the ways in which the mentor and protégé operate which are mutually affirming and empowering (Figure 2). In this model, the **Initiation Phase** begins as the mentor provides education and role modeling for the protégé. The mentor's subsequent undertaking of the function of sponsoring involves the risk of greater commitment to the protégé which marks the onset of the **Cultivation Phase**. As mentor and protégé actively engage in the functions which emerge during the

Cultivation Phase, their relationship grows stronger and correspondingly the overall width and breadth of the mentoring functions expand. As the mentor provides later appearing functions, however, less time may be allotted to some of the earlier functions , which will eventually disappear altogether. The waxing and waning of functions continues during the **Separation Phase** at which time ambivalence is experienced as mentor and protégé begin a process of psychological disengagement. By the time the relationship has progressed to the **Redefinition Phase**, the primary function of the mentor is one of moving from a transitional figure to a friend/peer.

This model, while incorporating Kram's psychosocial functions of initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition, reconceptualizes them to correspond in a manner which emphasizes the shifting nature of the mentor/protégé relationship. That is, at any time during the relationship, the mentor may become a protégé, while the protégé becomes the mentor. Thus, "connected knowing" strategies are encouraged rather than those which support the more "traditional" roles of mentor and protégé discussed earlier. Generally, the ways in which mentors and protégés might together construct the experience have not received much attention. Although the literature, much of which focuses on mentoring relationships in business, industry and higher education, has acknowledged the importance of consensus between the mentor and protégé on the goals and objectives of the relationship, an implied acceptance of the unequal distribution of power has existed in which the mentor identifies the "promising" protégé whom he/she then agrees to enculturate into the norms of the organization. This perspective ignores the protégé's "connections" which pre-date the mentoring relationship. It also assumes that

altruism on the part of the mentor is the sole rationale guiding the selection of the protégé. The networks and resources of the protégé which the mentor might find attractive are overlooked.

More recent research on career advancement mentoring (Henderson, 1990, and Mertz, Welch, & Henderson, 1990) suggests the importance reciprocity in the mentoring relationship. In this research, the authors found that potential mentors considered access to the networks of a prospective protégé a significant factor in their decision to mentor. Certainly this was true in examinations of more traditional same-sex mentoring relationships involving White males in which the perceived potential of the protégé to open previously inaccessible networks or to create new networks for the mentor constituted an important selection criterion.

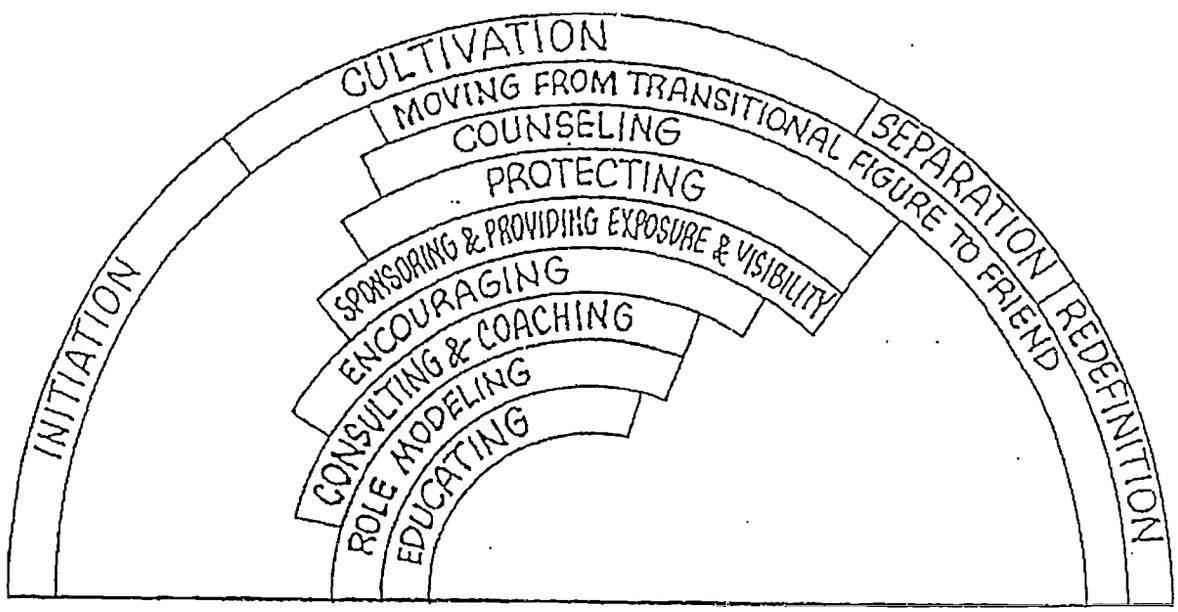
It is the protégé's co-equal ability to bring something of value to the mentoring relationship which is a major component of this Network Mentoring Model.

In a sense, Network Mentoring shares many of the characteristics described in the Holland and Heinrich studies. In both cases, protégés who described satisfying mentoring relationships were engaged in developmental relationships which went beyond the concept of the mentor/protégé dyad. A developmental relationship is one that provides support for an individual's professional development and career enhancement. It is also a relationship in which the parties have knowledge of one another and from which both may potentially benefit. Thus developmental relationships are separated from connections to "heroes", after whom individuals may model themselves but with whom they do not have personal relationships, and from "temporary instrumental" relationships, which are of very short

duration and require no mutuality between the parties (Thomas & Kram, 1987 as cited in Thomas, 1990).

Figure 2.

Corresponding Set of Functions. The Initiation Phase begins as the mentor provides educating and role modeling for the protege. The mentor's subsequent undertaking of the function of sponsoring involves the risk of greater commitment to the protege which marks the onset of the Cultivation Phase. As mentor and protege actively engage in the functions which emerge during the Cultivation their relationship grows stronger and correspondingly the overall width and breadth of the arc expands. As the mentor provides these later appearing functions, however, less time may be allotted to some of the earlier appearing functions such as educating. Thus, the width of some of the earlier appearing bands, which represent specific functions, necessarily will become narrower or disappear altogether. The waxing and waning of functions continues during the Separation Phase at which time ambivalence is experienced as mentor and protege begin a process of psychological disengagement. As noted in the model, by the time the relationship has progressed to the Redefinition Phase, the primary function of the mentor 's one of moving from a transitional figure to friend/peer.



A MODEL of MENTORING

Melanie R. Schockett, Ellen C. Yoshimura, Karen Beyard-Tyler, and Marilyn J. Haring. A Proposed Model of Mentoring. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Psychological Association, Anaheim, 1983.

CONCLUSION

This paper has examined issues related to the mentoring of graduate students within higher education. The work of Holland (1995), Heinrich (1995) and Haring et al (1983) have provided the conceptual frameworks within which issues of mentor roles and protégé perceptions and expectations have been treated. Findings from each of the studies suggest that mentoring relationships in the academy can positively affect the graduate student (protégé's) predoctoral productivity and initial job placement (Scott, 1992 as cited in Tillman, 1995). Similar findings have been reported for undergraduates although few African American or women scholars enjoy successful mentor-protégé relationships (Frierson, 1990; Heinrich, 1995).

Given the rules, culture and politics inherent in institutions of higher education, the need to develop cross disciplinary definitions and examinations of the mentor/protégé relationship as well as the issues and questions which frame it is critical. As the work of Haring et al suggests, hierarchical conceptualizations of the mentor/protégé relationship do not apply to the academy. In each of the studies, those relationships which involved elements of cultivation (Haring et al, 1983) quasi-apprenticeship, academic/career mentoring (Holland, 1995) or professional initiation in advising characterized by shared power between the advisor and advisee (Heinrich, 1995) were viewed by graduate students as positively affecting the quality of their doctoral experiences.

Such findings underscore the need to continue research on mentoring which focus on the questions introduced earlier in the paper; that is, (a) the roles of the mentor; (b) what differentiates a mentor from a sponsor; (c) how mentors select protégés and how

protégés are drawn to certain mentors; (d) the effectiveness of formal mentoring programs and (e) whether mentoring occurs differently and with different results for women and persons of color.

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